

# AMERICAN FARMER.

RURAL ECONOMY, INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS, PRICE CURRENT.

"O fortunatos nimium sua si bona norint  
Agricolae." . . . . VINO.

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## AGRICULTURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE AMERICAN FARMER.

Sir—You will confer a favour on the United Agricultural Societies of Virginia, by the publication of the enclosed paper.

Your's respectfully,

EDMUND RUFFIN,  
Secretary to the Delegation.

### A REPORT ON THE NAVIGATION LAWS, AND A REPORT AND PETITION ON THE EXISTING TARIFF OF DUTIES; FROM THE DELEGATION OF THE UNITED AGRICULTURAL SOCIETIES OF VIR- GINIA.

*At a general meeting of Delegates from the United Agricultural Societies of Virginia, held the 5th, 6th and 7th of December, 1821—the following Reports and Petitions were submitted and unanimously approved, and the Secretary instructed to have published 500 copies for distribution among the members of the United Societies.*

RICHARD FIELD,  
Vice President of the Delegation.

EDMUND RUFFIN, Secretary.

#### *Report on the Navigation Laws.*

The committee appointed to enquire what has been, and is likely to be the effect produced on the Agriculture of the United States, by the "act concerning the navigation of the United States," approved March 3d, 1817, and the act supplemental thereto, or any other acts for the protection or encouragement of commerce and navigation, with directions to report their opinion thereon to the present meeting of the Delegation, with a petition on the subject, if in their opinion it be expedient, having according to order had the same under consideration, and report as follows:

That your committee deem it unnecessary on this occasion, minutely to investigate the general effect of restrictive regulations, with a view to the promotion or encouragement of a particular branch of the industry of a country. The decided and they believe the unanimous and repeated expressions of the opinion of the Delegation on that subject, warrant the conclusion, that it is unnecessary again to attempt to prove by argument what has been already so clearly established and illustrated by the Delegation, and which is in accordance with the principles of every enlightened modern political economist—that such regulations are impolitic and pernicious in their operation. The system of encouragement by restrictive regulations was, they conceive, truly the offspring of feudal barbarism and ignorance. The inhabitants of the towns acquired the favor of the government by aiding the monarch in humbling the power of the barons, and commerce and manufactures, the industry of the towns, were therefore fostered by privileges, monopolies, and bounties, at the expense of the rest of the community. But it is fortunate at this time, that facts and experience as well as principles afford to the enlightened political observer, the fullest illustration of the pernicious tendency of this system. In England, where the principles of it have been

practised and supported with most plausibility, and where most talent and ingenuity have been enlisted on its side, the most glaring absurdities and inconsistencies are presented. Bounties, privileges, and monopolies were at first dispensed, for the encouragement of manufactures and commerce. In the lapse however of a century or two, famine and scarcity warned the Legislature of that country of the degradation to which agriculture had been reduced by these unjust and oppressive privileges and restrictions. It was then thought necessary that some encouragement should be extended to agriculture. And instead of retracing their steps, of abolishing the oppressive privileges which had been conferred on the merchant and manufacturer, by which agriculture had been relatively degraded and taxed, first a bounty and then a monopoly has been tried. And the government of England now exhibits to the world this preposterous solecism:—it taxes and oppresses agriculture for the encouragement of commerce and manufactures;—and it taxes and oppresses commerce and manufactures for the encouragement of agriculture! Bounties, privileges, and monopolies are mutually given and received, with perhaps no other effect than an increase of the patronage, and consequently the corruption of the government. Against measures of such a tendency, your committee conceive, the agriculturists of this country can never be too much on their guard.

Your committee having thus briefly adverted to the tendency of measures for the encouragement of particular branches of industry, will now proceed to a more particular examination of the acts of the Congress of the United States, specified in the resolution to them referred, to wit: the act concerning the navigation of the United States, and the act supplemental thereto. So far as these acts have the general tendency of restrictive regulations, they are liable to all the objections to which such regulations are exposed. By lessening the competition among the buyers, they tend to lower the price of our surplus agricultural produce, and by lessening the quantity of foreign productions in our market, they tend to raise their price. Contrary to the soundest maxims of individual or national prudence and economy, they cause the agriculturist to sell cheaper, and to buy dearer, than would otherwise be the case.—But the objects and tendency of these acts require further development. Their immediate effect was to annihilate totally the direct trade which was carried on between the United States and the British West-India possessions. This trade consisted almost exclusively in the exchange of the surplus rude produce of our soil for that of the British Islands, and was in the opinion of your committee, greatly and mutually beneficial to the agriculturists of both countries. It is true that this trade, according to the principles of the British colonial policy, that with short intervals has operated ever since the acquisition of these possessions, has been carried on entirely in British vessels, yet it appears to your committee to have been eminently advantageous to the agriculturists of the United States, because in return for cargoes of West-India produce, which were brought in, cargoes of our surplus agriculture were carried back. But our Commercial citizens complained that they were not allowed to participate in the advantages of this trade, by being the carriers of the productions of their soil; and contended that it was the duty of our government to remedy the injustice of which they complained by a retaliatory measure on British Commerce. They asked that the trade between our country and the British West-India possessions might be regulated by the same principles as those on which our direct

trade with Great Britain is carried on;—and contended that a retaliatory measure, such as the one adopted by Congress, by which British vessels are excluded from bringing us the productions of the West Indies, unless our vessels are allowed to carry our own in return, would compel the government of Great Britain, to accede to our proposition of putting this commerce on the footing of fair reciprocity.—Your committee trust that the agriculturists of the U. S. will never be insensible to the duty which they owe to every class of its citizens, that they will cheerfully submit to any reasonable sacrifices for the purpose of relieving them from the operation of oppression and injustice. But it appears to your committee that the evil under which our navigating fellow citizens laboured, if within the reach of any remedy which the Congress of the United States can apply, is not yet at all likely ever to be removed or alleviated by the measures to which recourse has been had. Your committee admit the propriety of retaliatory restrictions for the purpose of retorting on the aggressor in commercial warfare the evils of his own injustice, provided that in any particular instance, there is a probability that they will procure that freedom of commerce contended for. And they would therefore entertain some hope and derive some consolation amidst the privations which the agriculturists suffer from the acts in question, if they could suppose that the blow which has been aimed had fallen on the real authors of the injury. Such however does not appear to them to be the fact. And it is from this cause they believe, that the experiment which has been improvidently and inconsiderately tried, has failed. The British possessions in the West-Indies are, as to commercial regulations, governed by a Legislature, which does not look alone to their prosperity, but which on the contrary has always notoriously sacrificed the interest of the colonies to that of the mother country. The very object which the government of Great Britain professes to have in view, in the acquisition of colonies and dependencies, is, to secure a monopoly for their merchants and manufacturers. And it is their navigating and shipping interest which that government consults in framing their commercial laws for the West-India Islands. But in proportion as the trade of those islands is roundabout and indirect, just in the same proportion is the shipping interest promoted. Our acts then it appears to your committee, instead of coercing the government of Great Britain, actually co-operate in its views. They may and no doubt do press with considerable severity on the inhabitants of the British Islands; and it is highly probable, if they had the power, that our commercial relations with them might be placed on the fairest footing of equality. But whilst the government of Britain retains its controlling power, and whilst the shipping interest of that country is consulted, we can never expect our restriction acts to have the effect of obtaining for our navigating citizens an equal participation in the trade of the British West India possessions. The present, and in the opinion of your committee, the permanent effect of these measures as long as they are continued in operation, must be,—that because a foreign government has done some injury to the navigating class of our citizens, our own government has, without any prospect of benefit accruing from it, inflicted another and deeper injury on the agricultural class.

Your committee believe that there are other acts of the Congress of the United States, for the protection or encouragement of commerce and navigation, which produce effects prejudicial to the interest of the agriculturists. They would however prefer abstaining

from the language of complaint unless in cases where the grievance was heavy and obvious. They therefore forbear to notice them on the present occasion—And as the acts which form the subject of this report, were enacted under the impression that they would operate coercively on Great Britain, and by affecting the interest of the governing classes in that kingdom induce the government to abandon its colonial policy, and to place our commerce with its West India Islands on a footing of reciprocal freedom; your committee trust that the experience of the last four or five years has been sufficient to dispel the illusion which then prevailed; that Congress in its wisdom has been convinced of the impolicy of these measures; and that it will restore to us for the benefit of the agriculturists that portion of commerce of which we have been deprived by unsuccessful, and as it appears to them, a most improvident experiment. Under these considerations your committee deem it inexpedient, at the present meeting of the Delegation, to present a petition on the subject.

All which is respectfully submitted, &c.

#### REPORT ON THE EXISTING TARIFF OF DUTIES.

The committee appointed at the last meeting of the Delegation of the United Agricultural Societies of Virginia, with instructions "to prepare and lay before the next general meeting of Delegates, a petition to the Congress of the United States, praying for a reduction of the Tariff of duties, &c."—concur in making the following

#### REPORT.

In performing the duty assigned to us by the Delegation, it was found that both the importance and novelty of the subject, required a more minute investigation, than could with propriety be exhibited within the limits of a petition. It was therefore deemed most proper to lay before the Congress of the United States, only the general propositions on which the prayer of the societies is founded, and to submit to the Delegation separately, an exposition of the evils which accrue to agriculture and the nation, from the present tariff of duties on importation.

To oppose the general policy of encouraging manufactures by prohibiting duties, is at this time unnecessary. That question has already been sufficiently discussed by the Delegation, and they have been supported by concurrent memorials of the people from Maine to Georgia, remonstrating against the increase of duties with which the nation was threatened. The voice of the people has decided against the theoretical principle of the tariff of 1816, and we have now only to contend with its practical evils.

From the adoption of the federal constitution to the present time, nearly the whole revenue of the general government, has been derived from duties on importation. This mode of taxation, while restrained within proper limits, was the most equitable that could be devised. It is preferred by the people, for the ease with which its payments are made, and by the government on account of the cheapness and certainty of its collection. But it is perhaps somewhat questionable, whether its real and alleged advantages, may not be counterbalanced, by the evils and abuses which are inseparable from indirect taxation. The merchant's usual and necessary commission on the duty, makes the collection dear to the consumer, although cheap to the treasury; and the lightest impost is some obstacle to that perfect freedom of trade

and industry, which would most promote the national prosperity. By confounding the taxes on commodities with their prices, they cannot easily be distinguished, and this enables governments to abuse the power, as they have invariably done to the injury of trade and industry, and even of the treasuries, which they intended to increase. We shall show how far the existing tariff varies from its only proper and legitimate object, the collection of revenue, by a fair and equal tax on consumption;—and urge sufficient reasons for that reduction of duties, which is not less requisite for the benefit of the treasury, than for the relief of the people.

The *ad-valorem* duties fixed by the tariff of 1790, were only 5 per cent, on most imported commodities, and on none did the rate exceed 15 per cent. They received several augmentations previous to 1804, at which time, the greater part of the *ad valorem* duties were rated at 15, and the highest at 22½ per cent. These rates continued until 1812, when our war with England commenced, on which account all duties were doubled, under the pledge of Congress, that the law should be repealed within a year after the termination of hostilities. When this augmentation took place, a considerable addition to the public revenue, was necessary for national defence, and this heavy charge therefore met the cheerful acquiescence of the community, and by no part more readily than the counties to which our societies belong. In 1816, the war duties were substituted by the present tariff, which was completed by a few additions in 1818. This tariff, so far from restoring the duties which were in operation previous to the war, increased them generally 50 per cent, and on some of the most important foreign commodities, (low priced cottons, iron in bars, &c.) exceeded even the double war duties. Had the receipts of the national treasury corresponded with this augmentation of duties, it would have afforded some consolation; but the well authenticated defalcation of many former sources of revenue, has afforded additional evidence of the truth of the aphorism, "that in the arithmetic of the customs, *two and two* do not always make *four*, and frequently less than *one*."

The high duties exacted under the tariff of 1816, have effectually prohibited the importation of articles which antecedently had contributed in an important degree, to augment the receipts of the treasury. Of course, so many of the sources of revenue are completely dried up. But notwithstanding, the full amount of tax thus imposed, is still fully paid by the consumers, in the monopoly price of the domestic articles, which have substituted the foreign. Among the prohibited commodities, coarse cottons deserve particular notice. These are ostensibly charged 25 per cent; but the law requires that the first cost shall not be estimated at less than 25 cents the square yard. As the cheapest foreign cottons may be purchased for one fourth of that price, 100 per cent. would be the real duty charged, instead of 25 which appears on the law. What amount of revenue is now lost by the prohibitory duties on low priced European cottons, we have no grounds

to estimate; but those from India alone, formerly yielded to the treasury, about \$1,000,000 annually, the whole of which is now sacrificed, and converted into an indirect bounty, paid for the manufacture. What adds to the enormity of the evil, is, that its entire payment is drawn from the poorer class of the community, by whom goods of this quality are exclusively required. To the wealthy purchasers of the finest cottons, the cost of duty is only 25 per cent. The destruction of this branch of the India trade, by the tariff of 1816, has produced consequences, not less injurious to commerce, than to the revenue. The magnitude of this part of the evil effects, may be inferred from the following alarming fact. In 1807 fifteen ships from the port of Salem, alone were employed in the India trade; the prohibitory duties on cottons, reduced the number to two; nor are these sustained in its prosecution, so much by the home market, as by reshipments to Europe and South America, by which means the excessive duties are avoided.

When nails were charged two cents, and spikes 1 cent per pound, the average duty paid on them, into the treasury, for 1802, 3 and 4, amounted to \$70,000 a year. The rate on one of these articles is now doubled, and on the other, tripled: their prices have risen in full proportion—but the present tax being prohibitory, no part is paid to the government, but the whole to the manufacturer. From the increase of these duties, and of the population and consequent consumption of the country, since 1804, there can be no question, but the loss to the government and people, on these two considerable articles alone, has been equal to \$170,000 a year, since the adoption of the present tariff.

The foregoing examples furnish fair specimens of the effects of the duties imposed on all commodities which can possibly be manufactured in the United States. Most of them it is admitted, are only partially prohibitory—but as far as they are operative in that way, to the same extent do they defraud both the treasury and the people. There is not a single duty on articles of this description, which would be increased in amount, by being reduced in rate.

Books are printed and sold in this country, at less than the first cost in England. Consequently the duty of 15 per cent. on imported books, is required neither for revenue, nor for the protection of the home manufacture. Its immediate effects, as it regards the pecuniary national loss, are inconsiderable: but no part of the tariff can produce more of ultimate injury, when compared with the very slight benefits, expected from this duty. All European works, for which there is an extensive demand, are immediately furnished to the public, by American publishers. Thus we are regularly and cheaply supplied with all the trash intended for the circulating libraries of England.—But many works of great intrinsic value, which from the nature of things, would have but few readers, cannot be profitably reprinted here, and the duty obstructs or prohibits their importation. The most striking example of this evil, is found in the difficulty with which European agricultural works can be obtained. In



no other class is more discrimination necessary, for selecting such as are valuable from the worthless mass: and none, even of the best, have fewer purchasers, or readers. We know of but three European volumes on agriculture, which have been republished in the United States, and works of this description were seldom or never imported for sale, until within the last few years. The spirit of enquiry which has lately arisen among farmers, has in some measure counteracted the prohibitory tendency of this duty. Our booksellers have imported some valuable works, and, (as might be expected) still more which are useless, and the necessary high price of all, has allowed so little profit to the importers, that we understand, no expectation remains of a repetition of the experiment. We admit that the most unreasonable price might not deter an individual from importing a work for his own use, the contents of which he knew to be valuable. But our prohibitory system has allowed so little information on this subject, that but few individuals can form a just opinion of the merits of any foreign agricultural publication, until all the expenses of its importation are incurred. The injury which may be sustained from this kind of deprivation, cannot be estimated by dollars and cents. To oppose any obstacle whatever to the progress of intellectual improvement, presents a singular feature in the policy of a free government: yet not content with the present duty of 15 per cent. on foreign books, it was proposed in 1820, by the committee of manufactures, and actually passed the House of Representatives, to increase it to 25 per cent.

For the purpose of raising the greatest possible revenue by an impost, it is necessary that the prices of foreign commodities should bear a certain proportion to the prices of the domestic produce, offered in exchange. By causing the prices of foreign commodities to exceed the limits of that proportion, the tariff injured the public revenue; and other circumstances of subsequent occurrence have increased its ill effects. Commodities generally, throughout the world, have fallen considerably in value, since 1816; and all our *specific* duties of course, have increased in rate, in proportion to the reduction in price of the articles, to which they are affixed. There is another and a much more important consideration. The produce of our soil has fallen still lower than manufactures and other foreign productions. The average reduction of the prices of corn, wheat and tobacco, is at least 50 per cent. and consequently, the means for the payment of the duties, are lessened in the same proportion. For any amount of tax imposed by the tariff which in 1816 could have been paid with one bushel of wheat, we have now to pay two bushels;—and the result is the same, whether the duty was imposed for revenue, or for protection; whether the farmer pays it directly to the treasury, or indirectly to the manufacturer. In this manner, both *specific* and *ad valorem* duties, which under different circumstances were equitable and productive, without any alteration of the statute book, may become burdensome to the people, and unproductive to the treasury.

The diminution of revenue from the impost on manufactures, was not only foreseen, but intended, by the statesmen who framed the tariff of 1816. This deficiency was expected to be more than supplied, by the increased duties on foreign luxuries. This part of the system met with no opposition: it is a plausible and popular measure to impose heavy taxes on luxuries; and statesmen of a certain description were of opinion that to restrain or prevent the importation of such articles, could not be attended with other than beneficial effects on the country. We shall consider the policy on the several grounds assumed by its advocates, and particularly, examine whether any compensation is thus afforded to the poorer class of society, in return for their suffering the heaviest evils of the duties on articles of primary necessity.

Sumptuary laws for restraining the expensive habits of a people, have been tried often enough to prove their utter inefficiency. Universal experience on this head, renders it unnecessary to examine minutely for moral effects from the high duties on wines, tea, sugar, coffee, silks, &c. Governments, which Adam Smith correctly calls the greatest of all spendthrifts, are illy calculated to teach economy to the people, and frequently, (as in the present instance,) restrain the production of wealth, by the very measures which were intended to prevent its dissipation. The people of every country are sufficiently disposed to produce and accumulate wealth unless government interferes with its expenditure. The desire to possess and enjoy luxuries, forms the only inducement to labour, after the bare means of sustenance are provided—and to this universal pursuit of luxuries, the civilized world owes its wealth and power, refinement and learning.

The total amount of revenue derived from this class of articles, has not been impaired by the last augmentation of rates, and perhaps in many cases it is increased. But their importation and consumption have been materially lessened and this has produced evils of greater magnitude, than merely paying a higher price, for more limited enjoyments.

We cannot possibly sell commodities to another country, without buying to an equal amount, nor can we buy, without an equal selling. This rule is as certain, as that payment follows purchase, for in this way only can payment be made. This exchange of commodities, is generally direct, in the trade between any two countries—but however indirect or circuitous may be the mode of exchange, the result is still the same, viz: that buying and selling are reciprocal and equal. The nation which refuses to buy any commodity, by that means prevents the sale of the same amount of its own produce. The former and present state of our trade with Madeira, will illustrate this proposition.

The Madeira Islands once furnished a considerable market for our provisions, and we took in return wine, their only means for payment. The duty on Madeira wine was raised in 1800 from 18 to 53 cents per gallon, and in 1816, to 100. The last duty almost prohibits the importation: the revenue is injured, and our exportation of provisions to Madeira has ceased with the return cargoes which are no longer

admissible. The Islanders need our corn and flour as much as before—but we refuse to take their only product for payment, and thus surrender the market to other nations. The merchant who can both sell a cargo of corn, and buy another of wine, in one voyage, can drive from the market any competitor, who can perform only one of the two operations. While wines were moderately taxed the expense was exclusively borne by the rich consumers, who by gratifying themselves with this luxury, not only added to the revenue, but also extended our commerce, and benefitted the whole country, by causing a greater demand for our produce. By raising the duties, all these good effects have been lost. The rich by ceasing to consume, have ceased to pay that part of the tax to which they were subjected, and now only share the evils produced in common with the poorest individuals of the community.

If one nation could profit by the experience of another, our statesmen might receive a salutary lesson on this subject from England, whose system they have so much imitated. England imported timber and iron from Norway and Sweden, to the annual amount of more than \$3,500,000, and made the payment, by selling the same amount of her manufactures. By imposing heavy duties on timber and iron from the Baltic, the importation ceased, and these articles were supplied from the British dominions, though of worse quality, and at higher prices. The object of the increased duties, was to prohibit importation: but they had also the effect of as completely stopping the exportation of British manufactures to Norway and Sweden, as if those countries had adopted prohibitory measures for the purpose. This state of things continues to this time, and furnishes a remarkable example of the universal truth—that a nation which will not buy, cannot sell.

It may perhaps be thought that a trade with any country, which is carried on by purchasing commodities with specie, furnishes a contradiction to the alleged reciprocity of buying and selling. Only let gold and silver be regarded as commodities themselves, and this difficulty will disappear. To those who consider the precious metals, as something very different from commodities, as satisfactory, though not so concise a solution can be furnished. When it is stated that every purchase is accompanied by a sale of similar amount, we do not mean that both are necessarily made at the same time, nor between the same parties. If a merchant carries dollars from Boston to Canton, and brings back the amount in tea and silks, the transaction itself shews, that he had obtained that amount of specie, by some previous sale, to another country capable of furnishing it. Under other circumstances, the order of time might be reversed, but with the same result. Suppose an American merchant to buy a cargo of European goods on a credit: a dozen sales of the same goods might possibly take place, before the original debt is discharged—but whenever the payment is made, it can only be done with an equal amount of American produce, or its value in money obtained from some other foreign purchaser.

We are too slightly acquainted with the de-



tails of our commerce, to attempt the enumeration of the injuries which it has sustained from our prohibitory system. A particular statement might confirm, but could not possibly weaken this general proposition—that so far as the tariff has diminished importation, (which was its leading object,) to the same extent has it diminished exportation; and the amount of both makes the national commercial loss. The individual losses of the commercial interest can neither be estimated nor remedied.

The most important of all the evils caused by the tariff, are inflicted on agriculture. The whole surplus product of the soil, is either directly or indirectly exchanged for the products of manufactures and commerce. Every farmer will at once admit that much the greater part of his produce, is thus appropriated; and a proper consideration of the subject, will shew, that the rule admits of no exception. If a farmer with his profits, buys land, or increases his stock; he in this way only affords to others the means of making the ultimate exchange: he exchanges his crops for the commodities of the merchant and manufacturer, through a third person, whose intervention may delay, but cannot prevent this certain result. According to the estimate of the well informed author of "The Examination of the New Tariff," the average rate of duties now imposed is 35 per cent. and of course, imported merchandize, and manufactures requiring protection, are as much enhanced in price. Supposing the price of wheat to have continued at \$1 per bushel, 135 bushels would now be required to pay for the same commodities, which 100 bushels would buy, but for our restrictions on trade. Though the nominal value of wheat is 100 cents, its exchangeable or real value is only 73 cents per bushel. Therefore the enhancement in price of the products of commerce and manufactures, is actually an equal diminution of the value of those of agriculture. This enormous per centage on the whole surplus product of the soil, is the share which agriculture pays of the cost of the tariff. Was importation not lessened, and was the whole cost of duty paid into the treasury, it would be an equal and impartial, though still a most burdensome tax. But when it is considered what trivial benefit accrues to the revenue, from many of the heaviest charges, we must suppose that high duties possess some other incalculable value, to compensate for the mass of evils which they produce.

The reduction of all prohibitory or unproductive duties to the rates of 1790, and of all others to such rates as would yield the greatest amount of revenue, would increase the treasury receipts, and at the same time, relieve the people of half the present burden of taxation—employment would be furnished to commerce, and new markets would be opened, and the existing demand increased, for the products of agriculture. But this withdrawal of legislative protection would put an end to all the hot-bed manufactures, which have been forced into existence, and sustained by the ill judged policy of government. This obstacle to reduction, we shall treat with the consideration which its importance merits.

Could we be persuaded that the legal establishment of manufactures, is an object worth any national sacrifice for either its attainment or preservation—still it would be necessary to compare the expected benefits, with their probable cost. The failure of every attempt which has hitherto been made, to adjust duties to the rate sufficient for protection, shews the impossibility of even approaching the amount of national loss, which would be required for the complete establishment of the system.

The rates recommended by Mr. Hamilton were adopted with but little alteration, by the Congress of 1790; and his report shews that he considered them sufficiently high, for the protection of most necessary manufactures. Their average rate was only  $7\frac{1}{2}$  per cent, and the event proved, that this tariff was altogether calculated for revenue, and therefore afforded no protection.

The duties fixed by the present tariff, average 35 per cent. or more than four times the rates of 1790. This augmentation, so far from effecting its avowed object, was loudly denounced by the manufacturers, as "totally inadequate," and they demanded further protection, with more clamour and determination than they have ever before evinced. More than forty memorials from various manufacturing associations, were laid before the next session of congress, which together with their numerous subsequent publications, agree as to the insufficiency of all the measures which were intended for their benefit. After all the evils which have been brought upon the people by the tariff of 1816, they are told by the Chairman of the Committee of manufactures, that "all attempts to promote our own manufactures have hitherto failed." Accordingly, a new tariff, deemed by that committee, effectual for the purpose, was presented to congress in 1820, and barely failed of becoming a law. There was some limit to the forbearance or apathy of the people—and they roused themselves in time to repel this last and most dangerous invasion of their rights. But however great the injury which would have resulted to the nation, from the enactment of the proposed tariff, experience warrants the doubt, whether even that would have effected its sole object, the establishment of manufactures. When we war against nature, we can expect nothing but defeat.

Our restrictive system has succeeded in establishing but few manufactures. The failure has been most striking of the general establishment, which, according to its advocates, would "correct the balance of trade," render us independent "of foreign supply, create an abundant home market for the products of our soil," and produce other national benefits, equally important, and equally solid. But these advantages, (the reality of which it is not necessary now to contest,) were not promised as effects of a partial establishment; and the warmest friends of the prohibitory system, are now loudest in deploring the failure of their experiment, and the total absence of its expected good effects. The congress and the people have decided against the consummation of the system; and the only question which remains, as to the public weal, is this:—Shall we re-

trace our steps, and abolish protecting duties—or abide by the present tariff, which the friends of restriction, admit to have produced none of its benefits, and which the enemies of that system, charge with furnishing its evils in abundance?

But the public interests, in whatever aspect they may be regarded, will not oppose as serious obstacles to the reduction of duties, as the private interests of the manufacturers. The measures would be denounced as a violation of the rights of property. Certainly the rights of property are involved in this question—but they were violated when a portion of the people's income was vested by law, in a privileged class, and this violation is repeated in the purchase of every commodity, protected by the tariff. We hold the rights of property as most sacred. But their violation will (in this respect) cease, and not be commenced, by the resumption of these exclusive privileges. The true theory of our constitution is utterly opposed to the sacrifice of the interests of the great body of the people, for the unjust gain of a few.

If however, the indirect bounties now enjoyed by the manufacturers, are treated with all the respect due to property, still their amount (measured by their nett profit) is too inconsiderable, to justly impede measures calculated to promote the national prosperity. The whole object and effect of protecting duties, is simply to induce individuals to pursue unprofitable employments, by engaging that the whole of the inevitable loss shall be sustained by the people. The difference in price between the protected domestic commodities, and of similar foreign articles, free of duty, is clearly a loss to the consumers. But the measure of their loss is very far from being the measure of the manufacturer's profit. Though they may obtain double the European price for their fabrics, yet that amount is fully required to overcome the high price of labour and other disadvantages, under which their business is carried on. In other words—they are paid this advance to compensate the actual losses which are of necessity incurred, and the profits which they obtain are as small, or (if their own statements are correct,) even less, than those of the oppressed farmers, merchants and mechanics. The whole annual sacrifice of the people of the United States, for the sole purpose of protecting manufactures, is probably not less than 30 millions of dollars. A miserable pittance out of this immense sum, constitutes the profit of the favoured class, and the residue is as completely lost to the nation, as if annually thrown into the sea.

The loss which the manufacturers would suffer by the abolition of protecting duties, would be the value of their machinery, a part of their other fixed capital, and the inconveniences which are incidental to every change of employment. The whole would not amount to the loss annually sustained by the nation, for their protection. Scarcely any important national measure has ever been adopted whether beneficial or otherwise, which did not destroy the value of a greater amount of property, belonging to some part of the community; nor has this unavoidable circumstance

been allowed, in other cases, to obstruct the public good. It is a slight evil, inseparable from the blessings of society and good government, that the interest of a minority, must yield to that of the nation. But if the interest of the manufacturers are held so sacred, as to outweigh those of the whole community, it will be far better for the government to purchase the surrender of their privileges, at their full value, than to continue to lose dollars, that this class may be enabled to gain cents. Highly objectionable as are all pension and pauper laws, yet there are many reasons for preferring that the national bounty should be dispensed as alms, rather than to be claimed as a right.

#### PETITION, &c.

To the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States, in Congress assembled, the petition of the Agricultural Societies of Prince George, Sussex, Surry, Petersburg, Dinwiddie, Isle of Wight, and Nottoway respectfully sheweth:

That we conceive the only object of duties on importation according to both the rights and interests of the good people of these United States, ought to be exclusively the increase of the public revenue.

That, while it continues the policy of government to derive from that source the funds requisite for the public services, your petitioners are altogether willing to contribute to the utmost of their means; but they pray relief from all such duties, as, by their excessive rate, have either destroyed or diminished any portion of the revenue.

That the tariff of 1816 has so much increased the price of foreign commodities as greatly to diminish importation, and in many cases, completely to preclude it—thus augmenting the public burdens, when the government is, at the same time, and to the same extent, deprived of the benefits, which would otherwise be derived.

That justice and good policy alike require that wealth should be distributed among the different interests of the community, in proportion to their industry and merit: this natural and equitable division of property is obstructed by the existing prohibitory duties, which cause the several classes to be enriched or impoverished accordingly as they are favored or oppressed by monopolies and restrictions.

That whenever governments thus assume to direct in what manner private persons shall employ their capital and industry, national as well as private loss, is the inevitable consequence. The increase of national wealth is the total amount of profit derived from the capital and industry of all the individuals composing the nation. But every individual knows best what would be his most profitable employment, and no change in its direction can possibly be caused by government, except to pursue less profitable than would be adopted without the coercion; restrictions, bounties, or monopolies. The legal establishment, (by means of, protecting duties) of employments which could not otherwise exist, does not diminish the losses attending the pursuits; but merely shifts

them from the undertaker, to be imposed with augmented weight, on the really productive industry of the country.

That your petitioners humbly conceive that the Federal constitution vests your honorable body with no power to impose taxes and burdens on some states, classes, or individuals, solely for the emolument of other states, classes, or individuals: nor to grant exclusive privileges to the commercial, monied, manufacturing, or any other minor, and separate interest which must necessarily be at the cost, and to the injury of the great body of the people.

That the legal creation and support of distinct bodies, having interests separate from, and opposed to those of the people, and enabling them to accumulate wealth and political power by means of charters, monopolies, or other exclusive privileges, is subversive of that equality of rights on which our freedom is founded. Such privileged orders must become aristocratic bodies sufficiently powerful to control the public voice, and yet always subservient to the administration, on the tenure of whose will and favour, depends the continuance of factitious importance.

That a reduction of the rates of the tariff of duties adopted in 1816, would increase the receipts of the treasury, relieve agriculture and commerce from restraints the most injurious, and, by restoring freedom to all the pursuits of industry, offer the certain means for promoting the prosperity of our country.

Therefore we pray of your honorable body that those existing duties which are so excessive in rate as to prohibit importation, and are consequently, totally unproductive of revenue, together with all such as are only partially prohibitory, may be reduced to such rates as may be deemed best calculated to augment the receipts of the public treasury:

RICHARD FIELD *President,*  
of the General meeting of  
Delegates.

EDMUND RUFFIN. *Secretary.*

FOR THE AMERICAN FARMER.

PEACH-BLOSSOM, (Talbot-County, )  
December 22d, 1831. }

SIR,

The promise made to you, of communicating the mode of cultivation, by which I had so uncommon a product of Corn from an acre of land,\* in the year 1820, I fulfil with pleasure; and must acknowledge candidly that it was delayed until entirely forgotten. A few days since I was reminded of it by a friend.

In the autumn of 1819, I turned in, about 8 or 9 inches deep, a remarkably heavy crop of weeds and wheat stubble—as early as practicable. In March following the same was cross-ploughed equally deep—in April the same—and a fourth time in the early part of May, each spring ploughing being succeeded by the Drag Harrow and Roller, so as to pulverise the earth completely. Between the 15th and 20th of May, the ground was listed, east and west, with a small Connecticut Plough, allowing no haulks or middles between the lists, but so close as to leave only about 21 inches from the top

\* 131 bus. 7 gallons, 1 quart. See Am. Far. v. 3, n. 8.

of one list or ridge, to that of the next—it was immediately crossed, north and south, at the distance of four and a half feet; and the corn, (which had been previously soaked in manure-water, and rolled in plaister of Paris,) dropped at the intersections of the lists and crossings, and covered with a harrow. As soon as the corn got cleverly to growing, it was thinned to two stocks in a hill, as it is called—and I had no trouble in re-planting. When it became stout enough, 6 or 8 inches high, it was bared, that is, the earth was thrown from it; but immediately another plough followed, throwing the earth back again, after which I proceeded to plough out, and never used that implement again in its cultivation. You will observe, that this Corn was worked one way only, north and south, and that consequently it was necessary to use the hoe and the harrow pretty freely, to keep the ground loose and sufficiently clean for wheat.

The land on which this crop was made, is a light, black loam, an old Tobacco lot, (in whose immediate vicinity formerly stood negro quarters, stables, &c.) and so very rich, that manure was deemed superfluous. Candour compels me to say, that all this previous preparation for a crop, to which, together with an uncommonly propitious season, I in a great measure ascribe my success, was not made with a view to a crop of Corn; but, in reality to a crop of Tobacco. It however satisfies me of the absolute necessity of a complete pulverization of the soil, to ensure a good crop of Corn.

With very great respect,

I am, sir, yours, &c.

THOMAS P. BENNETT.

John S. Skinner, Esq.

#### CULTIVATION OF THE LOCUST.

Baltimore 12 mo. 24, 1821.

Observing some questions asked in thy valuable paper respecting the manner of cultivating the Locust tree, I will state the experience of a neighbour of mine as detailed by him to me. He procured about a quart of the seed from such trees as grew about this city, and in the spring prepared a piece of ground in the corner of a garden: placed the seed in a vessel and poured boiling water on them (to release the germ from its prison, without injuring it) and immediately planted them. They all sprouted as soon as a grain of corn would have done; some of them grew 10 feet high the first year. There is one in the garden of Geo. Ellicott, Patapsco mills which treated in the same manner grew 16 feet high the first season. It is stated that many of those which he planted are now fine trees, and may be seen three and a quarter miles on the Falls road, together with some planted at the same time by James Ellicott, on the same road and adjoining farm. The germ of the locust is enclosed in a very hard and durable shell and will remain some years in the ground without the power of breaking its prison walls unless helped by scalding or exposed to alternate frosts and thaws.

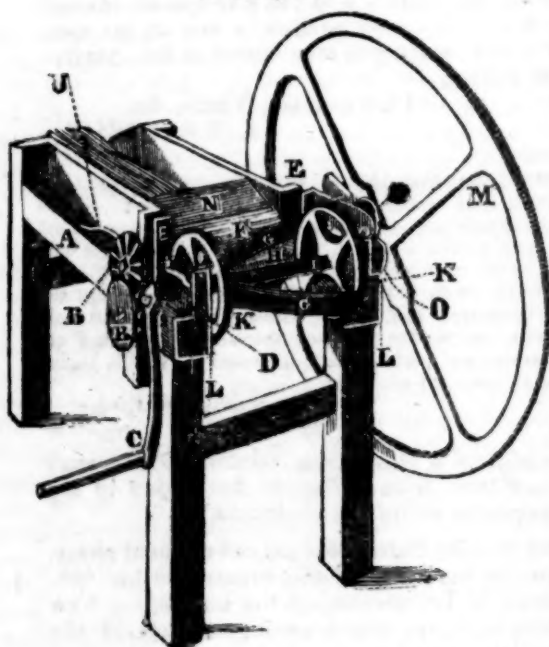
As many of the Locust seed as thou wouldst wish may be obtained in half an hour under the Locust trees round the garden fence of Col. Howard adjoining the Park.



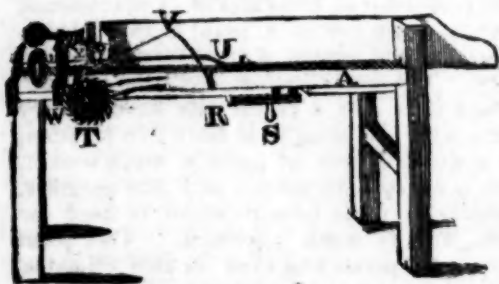
[In Number 38 of this volume, we made mention of a Straw Cutter, recently constructed by Jonathan Eastman, of Baltimore; which, so far as it has yet been tried, appears to be a substantial and effective machine; and that our readers may form a correct idea of this Chaffer, we now give two views of it and the parts, with a detailed reference to the performance and position of these: for the price, see advertisement on our last page.]

## EASTMAN'S Straw Cutter or Chaffer.

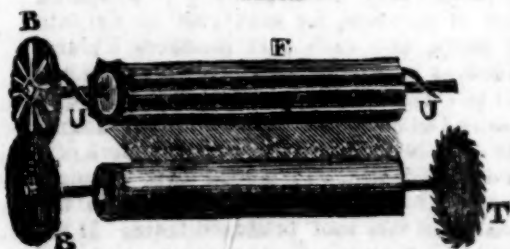
In Perspective.



Side view, excluding the Arms and Rim of the balance wheel.



Feeding Rollers and Springs; the rag and star wheels.



Cylinder, shaft and wheels, cutting knives and Cam.



Feeding Post and hand, Oval Cam, Friction Roller Rag Wheel, &c.



The frame of this machine, as now made, is about four feet long and 15 inches wide in the clear; it consists of 4 posts and 4 rails, made of suitable scantling, say 3 inches by 4; the back posts are about 3 feet 3 inches high, they rise some inches above the side rails to support the sides of the box; the front posts are framed into the side rails A, which pass over and project in front of them something more than one inch, so as to receive a wrought-iron band L, which is not only intended to strengthen the rail, but to receive and confine two stay blocks D, that are half as wide as the top of the rails, and in which the main cylinder shaft I, turns; these blocks are secured in their places by screws, that pass through the top of the bands LL, for that purpose; the upper blocks are generally made of cast-iron, and the lower ones of wood with a brass bed for the shaft I, to turn on. At one end of the main cylinder shaft there is a crank or handle C, by which the operator puts the machine in motion, and upon the other end of this shaft there is a balance wheel M; each of these are on the outside of the frame. On the same shaft, but inside of the rails and close to the sides, there are placed cast-iron cylinder wheels KK, of about ten inches diameter; and upon the periphery of these wheels, two knives GG are bolted, which diverging about 3 or 4 inches from a straight line, stretch in a spiral course from one wheel to the other, and are placed at opposite points on the circumference of the wheels KK; these knives GG, are about 15 inches long, 2½ to 3½ inches wide, 3-8ths of an inch thick on the back, drawn to an edge by a true slant on both sides. By means of the stay blocks, bands, and screws, the main cylinder shaft and wheels carrying the knives, may be moved closer to the straw, or be withdrawn at pleasure. The knives of this machine act against a steel bed shear H, which is placed back of the cylinder wheels and a little below a horizontal line from their centres; the bed shear may be made stationary, or be set upon a spring. Close to this bed shear, and immediately back of it, the bottom feeding roller is placed; this roller is about 4 inches diameter, smooth and of cast-iron; or it is of wood, when a leather feeding apron about 2½ feet long is supplied, that passes around this and another wooden roller, thus forming a portion of the bottom of the box, the rest being a sliding board—this apron, as it revolves, carries short forage, such as corn-husks, readily between and through the feeding rollers—the hindmost roller around which it passes, is attached to the bottom of the side rails, by sliding blocks R—each block has a seat cut on its upper side, to receive the journal or axis of the roller, and there is a long mortice cut through the block, so that it can slide on the neck of a screw S; these screws enter the bottom of the side rails through these mortices, and have cheeks to support the sliding blocks, which, with the roller on them, may be carried far enough back to stretch the apron, and be there fastened by the screws—this contrivance might be placed on the sides of the rails A, instead of the bottoms.

The feeding rollers F have, in all cases, an iron shaft through their centres, extending something more than an inch outside of the frame, on both sides. There is a star wheel B, on one end of each of these shafts, on that side of the machine by which the operator stands; and on the other end of the bottom feeding roller shaft, there is a rag wheel T, of cast iron, of about 5 inches diameter; this wheel is put in motion, by what is termed a feeding lever X, that is made of cast iron, is about ten inches long, and plays vertically upon a horizontal pivot, that is

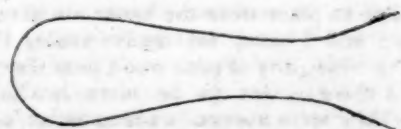
put through it and the feeding post W, its vertical range being limited by a pin that is put into either of several small holes, which are drilled in a group, near to the post W, which is of cast-iron, bolted at the bottom to the outside of the frame of the box; and rising about 6 or 8 inches, the top then turns backwards, towards, or over the rag wheel T, a sufficient length to contain that group of holes, into either of which the pin may be put so as to circumscribe or enlarge the play of the levers; this regulates the length of straw which shall be presented at each feeding movement.

On that end of the lever which is over the rag-wheel, a feeding hand Y is fixed, that may pass as it rises, over one or more notches on the rim of that wheel before it catches; then, as this end of the lever descends, the feeding hand forces the rag-wheel T to move, and consequently the bottom and top feeding rollers F to revolve, as it is fastened on one end of the bottom roller shaft, and as the other ends of the shafts of both rollers are coupled by star-wheels BB. On the front or longest and heaviest end of the feeding lever X, there is a small friction roller P, of from 2 to 4 inches diameter; and directly under it, on the main cylinder shaft, there is a cast-iron, oval Cam, or plate O, fitted to, or cast on the inside of the balance wheel M; and as this oval Cam revolves under the friction roller P, it raises that roller and one arm or end of the lever X, at each semi-revolution—whilst, at the same time, it depresses the other arm and feeding hand Y—this hand catching in the notches on the rag-wheel, as this arm descends, turns the feeding rollers, as before intimated, and by these movements the straw or forage is sent forward, after the passage of one knife, ready to be cut by the other—The knives CC and Cam O, being rightly placed, the feeding rollers will be at rest, whilst either knife is cutting, and after one knife has cut off a length of straw, more will be advanced before the other knife gets round.

To keep the feeding lever X and hand Y from bounding, as they otherwise would, when the machine is moved quickly; there is a weak spring V placed back of the rag-wheel T, in a suitable position; and from which a chord, wire or small chain, is passed to the feeding hand, so that as it draws this hand upwards on the notches of the rag-wheel—it raises that arm of the lever to which the hand is attached, whilst it depresses the other arm, and thus prevents any useless or injurious movement being made by the hand, lever or friction roller.

The box part of this machine is fastened with screws to the inside of the frame; it is stayed at one end by the hind posts, above the side rails, and at the other end by two short front posts EE, which are framed into the top of the side rails A, just above the bottom front roller. These short posts have a channel, or slit cut into them from the tops, for the journals of the upper roller F to play in, allowing it to rise or settle, so as to suit itself to the depth of forage that may be in the box, and suffering it to rise out of gear at the star-wheels BB, and cease to revolve, whenever there is a greater depth of forage in the box than the machine is calculated to cut.

An extra pressure is put upon the upper roller F, by means of two steel springs UU, one on each side, placed on the top of the side rails A, and over the journals of this roller: the pressure is given by screw bolts, that pass through the springs UU, and side rails A; the length of the springs is immaterial, they are made at present twenty inches long, with a sufficient bend towards one end. The star wheels BB, on the feeding rollers F, Mr. Eastman claims as his own construction, and those which work best have ten cogs of this shape and size



being in diameter six inches—the cogs are half an inch thick, open on one side, and cast on a smooth

solid plate, or wheel of iron of sufficient thickness to support them.

The several principles for which Mr. Eastman claims a patent in the above described machine, are,

1st. The feeding machinery, including what he calls the ovel cam O; the friction roller P; feeding lever X, and post W; star wheels BB, as described; and the manner of applying the pressure of springs UU, on the upper roller F.

2dly. The cutting machinery; embracing the shape of his knives GG, and their angle on the wheels; the size and construction of the cylinder wheels KK, on which the knives are fixed; and particularly the manner in which the shaft or axis is adjusted on the frame, so as to permit it, with the stay blocks D, wheels KK, and knives GG, to be placed nearer to the bed shear H, or be withdrawn at pleasure; as well as the form and use of the bands LL, and screws which confine the stay blocks D; and,

3dly. The general construction and proportions of the whole machine: these being materially different from and superior as he believes to those of any other heretofore employed for the same purpose; upon which grounds he claims a patent for the general construction and proportions of the machine, including the specified parts.

There is a board N placed towards the front of the box, and above the straw, to keep this from passing over the upper roller, and there are two little stays Z, which catch on the rag wheel to prevent a counter movement of the feeding rollers—by this means the straw is firmly held until cut by the knives.

The following certificate was given to Mr. Eastman by a Farmer of Baltimore County, and as it expresses his opinion of the "Cylinder Chaffer", after having used it, on his farm, we have thought proper to publish it, along with the above description.

*Edit. Am. Farmer.*

This may certify, that I have made a sufficient trial of Mr. Eastman's Cylinder Straw Cutting Machine, to satisfy myself with respect to its utility. I have cut eighty bushels of straw with it—19 of which were cut in 20 minutes. I think the machine capable of cutting 60 bushels per hour, if well managed—The machine is very simple, and I think more completely adapted to the use for which it is intended, than any other that I have ever seen.

CHARLES JONES.

Baltimore County, 1st Nov. 1821.

### *Influence of TREES on our HEALTH.*

FOR THE AMERICAN FARMER.

TO THOMAS LAW, ESQ.

Your suggestions made some time ago, and more recently, that certain Trees were wholesome, and certain others prejudicial to health, were to me, entirely new in print; though the particular odour of trees, and its effects upon my system, had many years ago attracted my attention and observation. Some there are that produce upon my olfactory nerves an agreeable sensation, such as the American poplar, sassafras, and more particularly the long leaved yellow pine and the red cedar. The smell is not only pleasant but always seems refreshing. Such I have been induced to believe are desirable to place near the house, on account of health: and I have, for many years, thought that the contiguity of pine wood near dwellings, caused those houses to be more healthy than where they were absent, under similar circumstances in other respects.

On the other hand there are trees which are offensive in their odour, such as the Weeping

Willow, under which you will always find stinking leaves and dead twigs. The contiguity of those trees to dwellings, had led me to think, from frequent observation, occasioned sickly families. I know no place that I consider healthy, where those old-fashioned, and, with some, favourite trees, stand near the house.

The common locust I have thought healthy, and the Lombardy Poplar I cannot form an opinion respecting.

Your observation made some time ago, does not seem to have attracted the attention of any chemist to experiments upon the subject. Do you know none in this country who possess the qualification, the apparatus necessary, and the disposition to make experiments to gratify our useful curiosity, whom you can personally request to institute experiments? If not, apply to Sir H. Davy, who I have no doubt would undertake the business.\* It seems agreed among chymists, that trees absorb or take up impure air (carbonic acid gas) and give off pure air (oxygen gas,) during the day; and I think the present opinion is, that this operation is reversed during the night. Then may not some trees require more impure air, and afford more pure air than others?

Some modern physicians ingeniously maintain that consumption of the lungs cannot be cured by any application to the skin, or by means of any medicine taken into the stomach, and that it can be cured, but only by inhalation into the lungs, of air impregnated or saturated with certain things, and these things are chiefly resinous substances. Does not the odour which the pine gives off, contain a useful preparation of this substance?

Another suggestion has been made by Mr. Meigs, of your city, that appears to me, very just and very useful. It is, that we should preserve our trees, if it is only for the purpose of attracting the rains.

That single trees or small clumps, possess this power, I think questionable; but that bodies of wood, and not very large either, possess this power, from many years observation, I am fully satisfied. Besides their absorption of moisture by the leaves, and consequent attraction for it, there are other philosophical reasons that might be given for the truth of Mr. Meigs' opinion.

ENQUIRER.

Dec. 20, 1821.

\* I would invite my friend Dr. Mease to attend on this subject.

### *RABBIT WARRENS, how should they be formed, &c. &c.*

FOR THE AMERICAN FARMER.

Sir—I have been induced to believe, that a well stocked warren, would conduce much to the comfort of the farmer by supplying his table with a savory dish at little expense; but am at a loss as to the best method of constructing the inclosure, covering, &c.—an article on this subject, pointing out the best plan of forming a warren on the combined principles of utility, and economy, suited to the ordinary situation of our agriculturists, with some account of the habits of the rabbit, and directions for their care and treatment, would I think

oblige many of your subscribers as well as your friend,

A. B.

### *A VALUABLE ACQUISITION.*

#### *The Aracacha,*

FROM SOUTH AMERICA.

Laguaira, Nov. 29, 1821.

Dear Sir—I send you a small box of the Aracacha, and would write to you fully on the subject, but that Mr. Chester is just on the point of embarking. I refer you however to my friend, Mr. Oliver, who can give you an extract from a letter I have written to him on the subject, and which you may insert in the American Farmer.

I am dear sir, Yours, &c.

J. D'EVEREUX.

We trust that this is only the commencement of mutual and numerous interchanges of good offices and valuable productions between the agriculturists of the two Americas—every thing invites to the cultivation of the best understanding between them—We are perfectly aware of General D'Evereux's attachment to this country, and in the name of his agricultural friends, we tender him their thanks for this proof of his active and philanthropic disposition, which leads him to seize all occasions to do good.

*Editor Am. Farmer.*

*Extract of a letter from General D'Evereux, to Robert Oliver, Esq. on the subject of the vegetable called the Aracacha.*

The late Dr. Palacio Forxar, an eminent physician and naturalist of this country, in his MS. Journal of Travels through the kingdom of New Grenada, gives the following account of the Aracacha, or Apio, as it is more commonly called.

"According to Don Ignacio Huraña, who is the proprietor of the Farm of Tequendama, Aracacha is the root of a plant of the umbellifuous tribe, and beares a great resemblance to celery. The root is yellow, sometimes violet: in shape it is like a carrot: its flavor is very delicious; it is brought to table like potatoes, and a delicate sort of paste is made with it, which is baked into cakes; and like potatoes, a powder is made from it, which is used for starch, and is much esteemed. This plant grows in temperate and even in cold climates, and its culture is as easy and simple as that of celery."

Its culture may more properly be compared to that of potatoes, for each root is cut into small parts, and each part produces a plant, provided, as in cutting potatoes, an eye or bud be left to each. It is planted in March and fit for use in October. It seems to prefer a temperate and mountainous country: there is a ridge near Gaycaca, on the road from Valencia to Caracas, named the *Ceno de Apio*, from the abundance of this root produced there. If left some time in the ground, it attains a considerable size. It would probably be expedient to introduce it, in the first instance, in the Carolinas, whence it might by degrees, be transplanted northwards.

Mr. Vargas, in his account of the Aracacha, published in London, in The Annals of Botany, Number 2, page 400, says it is cooked in the same manner as



potatoes, and that it thrives best where the medium heat is between 58 and 60 degrees of Fahrenheit's scale—See Doctor Mease's Archives, volume 2, page 298—or, American Farmer, volume 3, page 77, for a more particular description of this vegetable—the culture and culinary importance and preparation of it, &c. &c. *Edit. Am. Farmer.*

### Editorial Correspondence.

#### VEGETABLE MARROW; BENE, POPPY AND COLZAT OILS.

Washington, H. of Representa-  
tives, Dec. 22, 1821. }

Sir—The vegetable marrow, the seed of which I lately sent you, was brought to England either from New Holland or New Zealand. I have forgotten which.

On looking over your paper of yesterday, I perceived some notice of the use and excellence of the Bene-Oil. During a late visit to France, I was surprised to find, that the cultivation of the Oleaginous seeds was considered to be the most profitable employment of Agricultural capital. The Colzat and the common Poppy, are the most productive. I expect to receive some of the seed, of the former, and will send you a portion of it. The oils made from these seeds are in general use for the table when perfectly fresh; also for painting and for lamps burning with less smoke, they give a much clearer and brighter light than whale oil. The Bene or Sesamum will, I believe, produce more oil than any of the plants cultivated for that purpose in France, with the valuable quality of keeping sweet for years. This plant will not succeed so well, however, in a northern climate, whereas the Colzat and Poppy might be cultivated in the northern, eastern and western states.

Adverting to a letter from Colonel Gibbs, on the dry rot in timber—it may be useful to remark, that the method he mentions of salting the timber and planks of ships, after being for some time practised in the British dock-yards, has been lately abandoned. The English builders now use the tar, which is extracted from pit coal by distillation. The timber and planks are paved over with this substance; and I was assured by the builders at Chatham, that their experience was in favour of its efficacy in preserving wood from the dry rot.

Your obedient servant,

J. R. P.

#### WHITE LUPIN.

Washington, Dec. 30th, 1821.

Dear Sir,—Supposing the inclosed letter from your valuable correspondent, S. W. Pomeroy, Esq. will be both useful and amusing to your readers, I give you leave (as I am sure he cannot have any objections) to publish it.

It is an answer to some inquiries of mine, on the mode of culture, and the value of the white lupin, you were good enough to present me with.

From the information contained in this letter, it will appear that it is a more agreeable than useful vegetable, and in my part of the world, (the rich low lands of North Carolina) we seldom think of manuring, especially by turning in a luxuriant field of vines or vegetables, which

we would consider little less than murder, or burying alive.

I am with great respect,

Your friend and servant,

L. SAWYER.

Brighton, 25th Dec. 1821.

Sir,—I am honoured with yours of 18th inst. and regret that you will be disappointed in your estimation of the white lupin as a *table delicacy*. I know of no use they can be put to in this country of plenty, except for manure, unless it be to ornament a flower border, in which the ladies think them deserving a prominent place.

The lupin, on which the "ancient philosophers" subsisted, may have been a *variety* essentially different; but if these were the same that "Diogenes lived on," by tasting them, we may easily account for his being content with *seven a day*—however, from the description some writers give of the Lacedemonean *black broth*, compared with which, they may not be unpalatable: they probably may have formed part of the composition of that patriotic dish.

I have been told that the poorest class of labourers in Fayal, when they cannot procure Indian meal, soak lupins in salt water to divest them of the hull, and take out as much of the bitterness as possible, to make a *soup* which is a substitute for peas; but if a hearty labourer can procure a *peck of corn a week*, with a little rancid oil, he will never have recourse to the lupin for food, and be content if he tastes meat but once a month.

Although the lupin will be no addition to the valuable esculents which your fertile soil can produce, if we have any in this section that may be desirable, be assured, sir, it will afford me pleasure to forward them—and that I am respectfully,

Your obt. serv't.

S. W. POMEROY.

For the American Farmer.

#### TO YOUNG HOUSE-KEEPERS. Curing of Beef.

I have seen several Recipes in the American Farmer, for curing beef; some of which are no doubt very good, but they do not communicate enough.

There may be many things in this necessary art, unknown to a family for the greater part of their lives, which it would be very useful to know the first year—I have, therefore, taken the liberty to send to the Editor of the Farmer, a plan that I think both theory and experience will sanction.

Get beef recently from the grass, and raised not very far from the market—for driving always inflames the vessels and melts down the fat, as well as hardens the flesh. The fat should be white and of good thickness, under the skin as well as interspersed throughout the flesh—a large kidney alone is not sufficient proof of good fat beef. Beef should be neither very young nor old—Oxen are to be preferred—Spayed heifers, although very tender and fat,

ant flavor—Cows are generally too small, and often pregnant—Bulls are said to be the most juicy, but even at two years of age, they require a first rate set of teeth to despatch a stake in ordinary time.

Let this beef (if in the fall) hang a few days in quarters, which is just as necessary to tender the boiling pieces as the roasting pieces—then cut it up and have the whole rinsed, drained and well sprinkled with salt. In the mean time have a pickle made with cold water, sufficiently strong to bear an egg—with a stir or two, cold water in 48 hours, will dissolve all the salt as well as hot water, and much trouble saved thereby. For every quarter of beef put in three ounces of salt petre—after draining your thick pieces, put them into this pickle—let them be covered with it, and if possible, fill the cask—In a week, turn them upside down, and let them remain three weeks, when the smallest may be used. The thin pieces that were left out, such as flanks and plates, should be rubbed every third day with salt and salt petre, which will bring them in for use sooner than the pickle. If you have much beef or expect to be 3 or 4 so this, using what you have, you must have another sort of pickle for a part of it, this is made simply by adding 1 lb. of sugar, for every 100 lbs. of Beef; to the former prescription of salt, and salt petre—by the sugar being added, you will find that your beef will not be cured in a less time than two months, but as a compensation it will preserve the beef nice for four months, when the other pickle will be found strong, and the beef rancid. Pocock's pickle is a very good one for this purpose, and unless the beef has been salted in tubs before, it will be found too weak for our climate. By the above plan the young Housekeeper can have a regular succession of nice Beef, the whole winter, first his thin corned pieces, then his corn non pickled, and finally his sugar pickled.

S. V. S.

JOHN S. SKINNER, Esq.

#### THE FARMER.

BALTIMORE, FRIDAY, JANUARY 4, 1821.

#### PRICES CURRENT.

The navigation of this city is at present obstructed with ice, consequently there are but few sales of produce now making, and these at retail.—In the present dull state of commerce the prices of this week may be considered as fairly given in our last quotations.—Any material alterations shall, however, be noticed as soon as they may occur.

#### Straw Cutters or Chaffers.

The subscriber informs the public that he has on hand, several of Hotchkiss' Patent Straw-Cutting Machines, the price from \$20 to \$45, and all on the improved plan. He will sell them for good acceptance in this city, on six months credit.

He has for sale, for cash only, a few of his patent cylinder Straw Cutters or Chaffers, the price \$45; or if supplied with a leather feeding apron, \$50. These machines are particularly adapted to the cutting of tops, stalks, and husks, of corn; and all other kinds of long or short forage, whether straight or tangled, may be cut with one of them easily at the rate of 60 to 80 bushels per hour—and as it respects simplicity and durability of construction, and ease with which they operate, I have reason to believe they have never been equalled.

JONATHAN S. EASTMAN.